1; Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936) 1940
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passing through positions of relative seniority till it becomes the senior set, after which its members die and the set becomes a memory, since its name does not recur. The only significant age-grades are those of boyhood and manhood, so that once a lad has been initiated into a set he remains in the same age-grade for the rest of his life. There are no grades of warriors and elders such as are found in other parts of East Africa. Though the sets are conscious of their social identity they have no corporate functions. The members of a set may act jointly in a small locality, but the whole group never co-operates exclusively in any activity. Nevertheless, the system is organised tribally and each tribe is stratified according to age independently of other tribes, though adjacent tribes may co-ordinate their age-sets.

The Nuer, like all other peoples, are also socially differentiated according to sex. This dichotomy has a very limited, and negative, significance for the structural relations which form the subject of this book. Its importance is domestic rather than political and little attention is paid to it. The Nuer cannot be said to be stratified into classes. Within a tribe there is slight differentiation of status between members of a dominant clan, Nuer of other clans, and Dinka who have been incorporated into the tribe, but, except perhaps on the periphery of Nuer expansion eastwards, this constitutes distinction of categories rather than of ranks.

Such, briefly, is the plan of this book and such are the meanings we attach to the words most frequently used to describe the groups discussed in it. We hope in the course of our inquiry to refine these definitions. The inquiry is directed to two ends: to describe the life of the Nuer, and to lay bare some of the principles of their social structure. We have endeavoured to give as concise an account of their life as possible, believing that a short book is of greater value to the student and administrator than a long one, and, omitting much material, we have recorded only what is significant for the limited subject of discussion.

III

When the Government of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan asked me to make a study of the Nuer I accepted after hesitation and with misgivings. I was anxious to complete my study of the

1: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936) 1940
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XI

554 562 593 Ritual status gives a man vague influence in his locality; but authority only in specific ritual situations. Sex and age are two, more general, conditioning attributes of local influence. Women and children have always a position inferior to that of men. Women occasionally gain a reputation as prophets and magicians but, as a rule, they play no leading part in public affairs. Among the Nuer, relations between the sexes, and between man and wife, are more equitable and give females more privilege than in any other tribe I have visited in the Southern Sudan. Nevertheless, they are subject to men: daughters to their fathers and wives to their husbands. Boys are under the command of their parents and elder brothers and only become full tribesmen, with the privileges and responsibilities of such, at initiation. The relations between the sexes and between children and adults belong rather to an account of domestic relations than to a study of political institutions.

561 623 When a lad has passed through initiation he becomes 'a man' and when he has married and begotten several children he becomes 'a true man', what we have called an elder. We have from time to time spoken of the part played by elders in homicides and other disputes. When a local community acts corporately and leadership and advice are required, these functions rest with the elders. They decide when seasonal moves are to be made and where camps are to be formed, negotiate marriages, advise on questions of exogamy, perform sacrifices, and so forth. Their opinions on such matters are readily accepted by the younger men, who take little part in the talk unless they are directly concerned in the issue. When the elders disagree there is much shouting and argument, for every one who wishes to speak does so and as often and loud as he pleases. The words of some elders count for more than the words of others and one easily observes that their opinions are usually agreed to.

561 These elders are members of central age-sets, at the present time the *Maker* and *Dangwenga*, for members of the most senior sets, the *Thut* and *Bonlor*, take little part in public life. We discuss in Chapter VI the relations between age-sets. Here we

2:Evans-Pritchard E-S (1931, 1936) 1951
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a man would chant if there were no girls near, a Nuer replied: 'And if there were no girls near, what would he chant for?' A youth who wants a girl in marriage goes to her village or camp in the evening and chants there for an hour or two. He knows that she will understand that the poem is about herself. Her relatives know why he has come. 584

A youth is particularly careful not to be seen eating by unrelated girls: 'If he is not making love to them, he may do so some time or to one of their relatives.' When I asked whether it would matter if your sisters saw you eating, the reply was, 'Do you make love to your sisters?' Food must never be mentioned in the presence of girls, and a man will endure severe hunger rather than let them know that he has not eaten for a long time. It is a strict rule of Nuer society that the sexes, unless they are close kin, avoid each other in the matter of food. Nuer do not go near persons of the other sex when they are eating. A man may mention food but not sexual matters before kinswomen, and he may mention sexual matters but not food before unrelated girls. 264 834

Girls are the arbiters of decorum, and the severest sanction of a breach of good form is their disapproval. Not only is the shame of it a sanction for etiquette, but it is a powerful influence in making a youth generous, respectful to his elders, dutiful to his parents and kinsmen, hospitable to guests, industrious, and brave. The girls on their side are anxious to earn the good opinion of youths by correct behaviour in the home and in society. 562 576 584

It will have been observed that it rests entirely with a girl whether she accepts a man's attentions and how far he presses his advances. A girl who is fond of a youth wants him to marry her. If he is philandering she will, if she has any regard for her chastity, be frugal with her favours. The talk between a youth and his sweetheart is frequently the topic of marriage. He asks her whether she will marry him, and she says that she will if he has cattle and her parents consent; or he entreats her to allow intimacy, and she urges that she might become pregnant and he not marry her, and she would then be in trouble. However, if a girl is in love with a youth, and he has a winning manner, she may surrender to his pleading. Men often break the promises they make to girls when they want favours from them, and in looking for a wife a man may pass over all his sweethearts, past and present, and go with his friends to seek a spouse outside the circle of his usual acquaintances. 584 836

2:Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936)1951
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593 *kur wutni*, fighting with men. Also, a Nuer woman—a Dinka captive is not in so favourable a position—who readily accepts admonishment and correction for faults, would not submit to bullying but would return to her parents and brothers, leaving her husband without cook, dairymaid, and nurse, and therefore unable to maintain his home; and he might find it difficult to persuade her to return. If she does return it will only be after lengthy discussions in her parents' home and, as he is likely to have said something unpleasant about them in altercations with his wife, he may have to pay them a cow in compensation. Even if her father and brothers support her husband, he cannot prevent her from running away again, and this time to some distant relative who is unconcerned alike whether the bridewealth is returned or what the husband's grievances and discomforts may be. Should he [586] decide to divorce her and marry again, he has first to get his cattle back—it is always doubtful whether he will succeed in doing so—and he has then to face two or three years as a bachelor before his new wife comes to live with him. Therefore he will only take this step if his wife shows that she is determined to leave him, or if she is incorrigibly lazy, dirty, foul-mouthed, quarrelsome, or wanton, and occasionally if she is barren. Even if she has these defects he may, rather than go through the tedious process divorce entails, let her depart and bear him children by other men. A man will seldom divorce his wife for adultery unless she is constantly unfaithful.

562 With rare exceptions, I found Nuer women well content with their station and that their husbands and other men treated them [681] with respect. In saying that their status in society is high I am judging not so much by the fact that the same number of cattle have to be paid for the homicide of a woman as of a man, and I believe more for a young woman in some parts of Nuerland, but by the part women take in the daily life of the community. They mix freely and with easy assurance with the men, and they do not hesitate to argue with them about matters in which they are interested as women. They have as intimate relations as the men with the cherished cattle, share with them the life of the kraal, and enter the byres when they wish to do so.

595 In a polygamous family the relations between husband and wife are complicated by the husband's relations with his other wives. *Nyak*, a co-wife, in its verbal form means both 'to be a co-wife' and,

8:Howell E, G-5 (1942-1944)1954
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differentiation is held valid nowadays. Yet the tradition is strong, and quoted consistently by nearly all Nuer tribes.

Uninitiated Boys

Among the Zeraf Nuer no distinction was made between those having manhood status and uninitiated boys. An uninitiated boy (*dhol*) was held fully responsible for his actions and his kinsmen were bound to assist him. Likewise the killing of an uninitiated boy demanded full rates of compensation. Boys who had not reached the status of warrior, however, were not expected to fight in a serious manner, and it was unlikely that an adult would kill a boy except by accident.

In Western Nuer some distinction seems to have been made even in the past. Writing in 1936, Captain H. A. Romilly records:

> Some doubt still exists about blood-money to be paid when 'ungarred' boys are killed.[1] The new decision in 1936 is: 'ungarred' boys killed by accident: 10 head of cattle; 'ungarred' boys killed on purpose: 20 head of cattle.[2]

It is difficult to say whether these fine distinctions are traditional or the result of past settlements in which the Government had a hand. It is, however, safe to say that theoretically full compensation would be demanded but would probably not be paid, as a compromise was more likely.

This matter was raised at the Nuer Chiefs' Council of 1945, but the only decision reached concerned the killing (usually accidental) of uninitiated boys by uninitiated boys (a fairly common occurrence in Nuerland). The indemnity for intentional killing was set at 20 head of cattle (i.e. half the full indemnity); for accidental killing, 10 head of cattle.

Compensation for the Death of a Woman

Nuer do not, of course, kill women in pursuance of a feud, though a feud might follow from the killing of a woman. Compensation is demanded in full; there is no distinction between the sexes. For an unmarried girl compensation should be paid to her family. For a legally married woman it should be paid to her husband. If he has paid only part of the bridewealth for his wife, compensation will still be paid to him, but some of the cattle will be demanded by the woman's family. He will be expected to hand over to them all cattle with the exception of a number directly proportionate to the number paid by him as bridewealth. The principle of compensation carried to its logical conclusion means that a man does not pay compensation

[1] 'Ungarred', 'uninitiated', from the Nuer *gar* to cut the forehead at initiation. Full compensation in that area was then 40 head of cattle.
[2] From unpublished administrative records.

8:Howell E, G-5 (1942-1944)1954
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682 562 593

at all if he kills his own wife—a rare occurrence—for he would have to pay it to himself.[1]

Legal Responsibility for Act of Homicide committed by a Woman

[672] A man is responsible for his wife's actions if she is legally married to him, even if only part of the bridewealth has gone to her family. If she kills someone, it is he and not her family who will pay compensation. A woman who is recognized as *kaagh* (unmarried concubine) is in a different category, and a man is not responsible for her actions even while she is living as his concubine. Not he, but her family, will be called upon for compensation if she kills someone.[2]

5. PEACE CEREMONIES: COMPOSITION ON A TRIBAL SCALE

728 The laws of homicide described in the previous sections concern feuds (*tar*) which take place between the segments of a tribe. Tribal boundaries were not in the past so clearly defined as to preclude payment of compensation between sections of one tribe and sections of another, but a whole tribe would rarely unite to demand compensation for one of their number killed by a member of another tribe. When two tribes had been at war for a long time and there had been many casualties on both sides, both might decide to make peace; according to tradition there was a specific ceremony by which peaceful relations could be restored, and this again was performed by a Leopard-Skin Chief. After preliminary negotiations, usually initiated by some prominent leader in one tribe, representatives of both parties met at a chosen spot. A bull, always a hornless bull (*cot*), was sacrificed, and the Leopard-Skin Chief invoked the spear names and ancestral spirits of both sides, calling upon them to maintain peace between their peoples and to avoid disruption by endless warfare. He cried out, 'He who reopens this quarrel will cause his people to die and scatter like the hairs of the head of this bull', and then shaved the hairs of its head, scattering them in the wind.

We are here approaching an obviously difficult distinction between the feud and warfare on a wider scale. It seems to me unlikely that the ceremony was often performed in the past, but the details of procedure have been described to me on many occasions. It is not a ceremony normally performed between segments of a tribe, though there was one occasion quoted in Gaawar when Liab Liou, the leader

[1] I have known instances. In each case no compensation was awarded, though the culprit was expected to pay a cow or two as an act of appeasement to his wife's family and as part of the process of ritual expiation. The courts were always reluctant to impose a sentence of imprisonment. The culprit had already 'punished himself'.

[2] The question of the legality of the marriage is relevant here. See under 'Legality of Marriage', Chapter III, p. 124.

F:Howell E, G-5 (1942-1944)1954
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'Widow-Concubine'

The main points are as follows:

(i) The man who performs the duties of husband to the widow is in no sense the legal father of her children, nor is he heir to the legal husband.

(ii) He cannot compel her to live with him or claim compensation if she commits adultery. The compensation for adultery would concern her late husband as represented by his living brothers or legal heirs.

(iii) He cannot divorce her or demand back her bridewealth for there is no legal marriage between him and the widow, only between the widow and her late husband.

(iv) He is not even the legal representative of the dead man and therefore, unlike the levirate or 'ghost-marriage', the characteristics of the simple legal family are not contained in the structure of this union.

The man's position is therefore, in theory, a precarious one. In fact, most of these unions are arranged with the agreement of the dead man's legal representatives and thereby receive social recognition not only from the world at large, but also from the dead man's family.[1] If no such agreement exists the control over the children and the widow may be a source of legal dispute. Such disputes are not uncommon.

Unmarried Concubines

All these forms of domestic and procreative union have one principal common factor: the children of the woman, whether she be wife, 'ghost-wife', widow or widow-concubine, belong to the man on whose behalf the bridewealth cattle were transferred to her family, and they trace their descent through his name to his more remote ancestors. There are, however, forms of union which are in no sense legal because no cattle have been paid as bridewealth for the woman. Children born of such unions will be attached in name to their mother's lineage unless their father chooses to legalize their status and attach them to his lineage by payment of a special fee, or unless the mother is legally married later to some other man who assumes the status of legal father to the children.

The status of women among Nilotic peoples is high. In the question of marriage they usually have a fairly free choice, though there are undoubtedly many occasions when father or brothers will use persistent persuasion or even force to compel a girl to marry a man she

[1] A widow living in this form of union with a man is known as *cieth me kak* and her children as *gaat cieth*.

S:Howell E, G-5 (1942-1944)1954
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dislikes simply because they are avaricious for the many cattle he possesses or wish to link themselves to some important family. More often control is exercised in the form of a prohibition rather than positive compulsion. In other words, although they will not use force to compel her to marry a man she detests, they will not allow her to marry the man she loves if he has not sufficient cattle to provide the bridewealth. Whether or not they will take this attitude depends on a variety of circumstances. Some Nuer girls are headstrong and of independent spirit and will not allow their wills to be thwarted by the conventions of the bridewealth system. They therefore live as they please with lovers of their own choice and without either the sanction of bridewealth or the ritual processes of marriage which go with it.[1] A woman of this sort is known in Nuer as *ciek ne kaagh*. The circumstances in which a woman becomes a *ciek ne kaagh* are many. Any woman who lives with a man without payment of bridewealth (either on his own behalf or on behalf of the man who is considered her legal husband) is called *kaagh*, but she may not be of the reckless independent spirit which characterises most of these women. She may be a young girl who has borne a child to a man who refuses to marry her, though this is rare, or a woman who simply cannot stand life with the husband of her family's choice and has therefore run away and provoked a divorce.

Women who are *kaagh* are not regarded as immoral in our sense of the word in these circumstances, but their families are naturally often exasperated by their behaviour and disappointed that no bridewealth cattle have been paid for them. Their social position as unmarried concubines is not generally so high as that of married women, but no distinction is made in the every-day behaviour of their neighbours towards them. The basic difference between widow-concubines and unmarried concubines is that in the former case bridewealth has been paid, even though it has not been paid by the man with whom they live and by whom they produce children. In the latter case bridewealth has not been paid at all or has been returned in divorce.

3. NOTE ON THE RULES OF EXOGAMY AND INCEST

An account of Nuer marriage laws would not be complete without mention of the laws of exogamy. It must be stated at once, however, that breaches of the rules of exogamy and incestuous extra-marital intercourse are not generally the subject of dispute or of litigation in the courts. Both parties are equally guilty, there is no question of compensation, and the spiritual contamination which is considered to follow incest (*rual*) and which is manifested in physical disorders

[1] For this reason Nuer do not go to extreme lengths of compulsion for, if the girl runs away, they will lose the chance of getting any cattle at all.

II:Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936) 1945
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Most African societies practise the levirate but the Nuer regulation by which the widow is still married to her dead husband profoundly modifies the practice in their society. It gives the simple legal family great stability and durability. The domestic group, the household, may break up through the death of the father but the simple legal family, the group of husband, wife and children born of the wife, endures. The personnel of the household may undergo many changes but the institution of the family is fixed by payment of bride-wealth which determines who is pater to any children born of the wife, whether the man be alive or dead. The family structure survives dispersal of its members and even the death of some of them. 587 768 592 593

But, although a wife is tied legally to her husband after his death, she has far more actual freedom than in societies where she can be remarried by one of her husband's kinsmen. The fact that she cannot become the legal wife of one of her dead husband's brothers considerably lessens their control over her. After her husband's death she can continue to perform her procreative obligations to him by bearing him children as well by a stranger as by one of his brothers, and she can rear her children in the home of a stranger as well as in the home of her husband's kin. Moreover, if during her husband's lifetime she bore him children her domestic and economic duties to her husband's people are adequately performed by her services to his children. In these circumstances, as will be explained more fully later, the husband's kinsmen must give her her freedom. 587 593 562

Leviritic marriage normally means the cohabitation of a man with his dead brother's wife. Sometimes, however, she lives with one of his sons. If a young man dies his children will not be old enough to take his wife. Also he is most unlikely to have another wife than their mother. Moreover, he probably has younger brothers who, being yet unmarried, have first claim on her services. When an old man, who has married several women, dies it is probable that most of the wives will be old also and elect to live with their own sons and daughters, or, if they wish to continue sexual relations, will choose to live with a lover who is not of their husband's kin. It is only when an old man dies who has lately married a young wife (who has not yet born him children, or who has born him a single child), and whose brothers are all married, that a son takes his father's wife. 587 768

Generally a young widow lives with a brother of her husband and it is only when there are no brothers living that she takes a lover from an unrelated, or distantly related, lineage. Tradition, good form, and threat of divorce, are powerful sanctions to conformity in this respect, though these influences are not so strong in the case of a half brother as in the case of a full brother, for a father's son of the dead husband has not the same claim on the services of the widow as a mother's son. Indeed, I was informed, among the Eastern Nuer especially, that a clear distinction is made between full and half brothers in respect of widows. After the death of a paterfamilias the children of each of his wives often live as largely independent economic units. If the mother is alive she cooks, 587 768 593

611 pater may count in childhood it grows in importance as the children reach manhood.

593 (C) Children may be born into two families and brought up in several households. This may lead to a clash of interests and divided loyalties. This is most likely when the pater is represented by a man who is not the genitor and foster-father of the children, and is least likely when the genitor and foster-father is a legal substitute for the pater.

611 593 562 (D) Legal paternity has a very different significance in the case of sons and in the case of daughters. The pater's kin want the sons to live in their home for reasons of sentiment and because they increase the strength of the group. The sons are drawn to their pater's kin by sentiment and self-interest. Their pater's people are their true kin and only in their pater's village are they owners of the soil and of the cattle. A man who wants to inherit his father's cattle and to receive portions of the bride-wealth of the daughters of his kinsmen should go to live among his father's kin and there marry a wife and beget children to their lineage. The pater's kin care little whether his daughters come to live with them or not. "Daughters are unrelated persons." They will bear children who will be members of other groups. So long as the pater's kin receive the cattle of their bride-wealth they do not mind what happens to their persons. Daughters often do not, therefore, join the kin of their paters but may be married from the homes of their genitors or foster-fathers. They are not compelled by sentiment or self-interest to join the kin of their paters.

583 611 593 (E) Types of procreative unions and families are classed by the nature of the social tie that links children to their pater, and of the social relationship between pater and genitor, and not by the tie that links the children to their mother. This is because the mother is comparatively unimportant from the legal standpoint since men take their status and derive their privileges mainly from their pater. Moreover the functions of motherhood are not divided among several women as the functions of fatherhood may be divided among several men. The legal mother, defined by the bride-wealth paid to her kin on her marriage, and by the cattle she receives as such on the marriage of her daughters, is always the biological mother. Motherhood has only split roles when a woman lives apart from her children, as may happen with widow-concubines, and in these cases the women who provide the children (who are not their own children) with food do not receive legal recognition of their services. The general social, rather than specific legal significance of motherhood is treated elsewhere.

583 602 (F) I do not more than draw attention here to the effect on kinship structure and sentiment of the different types of procreative unions. The fact that men in ghost-marriage and leviritic marriage raise up seed to their kinsmen has the effect that the group of kinsmen have closer relationships and a greater sense of common interests than they would have if they were all children of different simple legal families. The wider kinship group gains at the expense of the restricted family group. The prevalence of widow-concubinage and unmarried concubinage also strengthens sentiments of kinship, because there is in these cases no single undivided

11:Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936) 1945
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589 village are given matronymics instead of patronymics. Thus at Nyueny
591 one generally speaks of Bilieu ♂—Nyawal ♀ and Malith ♂—Nyaruithni ♀
611 instead of Bilieu ♂—Lam ♂ and Malith ♂—Rwacar ♂, though at the
551 villages of their paters one would speak of them by their true patronymics. One even hears the sons of Rainen ♂, Nhial ♂ and Galuak ♂, referred to after their mothers' name as *gaat Nyadang* ♀, "sons of Nyadang ♀", because they live in the village of their maternal kinsmen. The same nomenclature is to be observed when a son of an unmarried concubine lives with his mother's people, e.g. Cuol ♂—Mer ♀ who was referred to overleaf.

• 562 Another point of importance which is very obvious from the facts related in this paper is that marital and domestic conditions among the Nuer indicate the high position of women in their society. The matter cannot be discussed at length here and I will only remark that the facts cited show how freely women move among the Nuer. We have seen that widows settle with lovers without hindrance, that many girls rear a family without consenting to marriage, and woman always take their small children with them when they change households, and that sometimes they even marry wives themselves.

611 The social principle of agnatic descent is, by a kind of paradox, traced through the mother, for the rule is that in virtue of payment of bride-wealth all who are born of the mother are children of her husband. Thus all the children of a woman may be children of a man whom their mother has never even seen. Or a woman may bear children by many men yet they all have one pater. Or, yet again, a woman may bear a child by a man to whom she is not married and to whom she never will be married, but this man is her child's pater by payment of a fee.

602 We see herein the fundamental principle that gives structural uniformity to, and thereby explains, the heterogeneous social elements isolated and described in this paper. I refer to the agnatic principle that is one of the most fundamental principles of Nuer social organization. It runs through the whole gamut of social relations, from ecological relations at one end of the scale to cosmological relations at the other end. This principle is not merely that every man must have a pater, and that he traces his descent through his pater, inherits from his pater, and succeeds to his pater's status. These are contained in the principle and are an expression of it, but, in our opinion, the agnatic principle among the Nuer is essentially the tendency of attachment to agnatic groups or lineages. By such attachment a man becomes a social being for his social personality is acquired from his attachment to these groups, from which he derives also, through mutual assistance, the means of existence and security.

At first sight many of the facts stated in this paper seem to be in direct opposition to this principle. Thus if we take the Jany (Kwenwar) cluster at Nueny it is evidently an aggregate of cognates and affines. The same social conditions can probably be found in every Nuer village. The underlying agnatic principle is therefore in glaring contrast to social actualities. But the actualities are always changing and passing while the principle endures.

16: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936) 1956
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782 [137] incest a fruit of the sausage tree (*Kigelia aethiopica*) may be cut in half, though I am uncertain whether this constitutes a sacrifice *in sensu stricto*.

We have discussed to whom sacrifice is made and what is sacrificed. We have now to ask by whom it is made, and when and where. We have first to distinguish between the person (or social group) on whose behalf it is made, whom we may speak of as the sacrificer, though with some danger of misunderstanding, because he may not take an active part in the rite performed on his behalf, and those who act on his behalf, the actors in the drama.[1] There may be a number of these. Several people may take part in the consecration and several men may deliver invocations. One man may present the victim, another consecrate and make the invocation over it, and yet another slay it. Nevertheless, there are always one or more prime actors, those who make the consecrations and invocations, which, rather than the actual killing, constitute for Nuer the main acts in the series of rites making up a sacrifice; and we may therefore speak of anyone who, after consecrating the victim, makes an invocation over it as the officiant. There may be several of them. In certain sacrifices, particularly those of the collective kind, whoever else may invoke God, one or other particular functionary either must do so or it is thought highly desirable that he should do so. I discuss in Chapter XII the sacrificial roles of these various functionaries in Nuer society. Normally any senior man, usually the head of the family of the sacrificer, can officiate at personal sacrifices. He would generally be one of the sacrificer's paternal kinsmen but it would not matter if he were not. The sacrifice is to God and not to ghosts, and it therefore does not matter who officiates. A youth would not officiate if there were [561] an older man present, but this is a matter of social convention only: there is no ritual bar to his acting. Women do not sacrifice. [562] They may assist in the act of consecration with ashes and they may pray, but they do not make invocations or slay victims. Neither the sacrificer nor the officiant has to be in a state of ceremonial purity. This is an idea entirely unknown to Nuer.

It is obvious that in the collective sacrifices the rites must have to some extent a determined place in the whole social activities of

[1] Hubert and Mauss, op. cit., pp. 48 seq., make the distinction by using 'sacrifiant' and 'sacrificateur'. A word corresponding to 'sacrifiant' is not so easily formed in English.

16: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936) 1956
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826 811 handed man that his left hand is his right hand. It is the quality of leftness, not the thing that is left, the hand itself, which is significant for them. Similarly, the left half of the severed carcass of a sacrificial animal is not intrinsically evil. It is always eaten by someone. It is bad symbolically, not in itself, and symbolically only in certain contexts or for certain people.

411 885 562 It is suggested that the spear as a projection of the right hand symbolizes the vitality of man, the manhood of man with the associations of lineage values that go with it. It is within the logic of the representation that we speak only of men. The spear stands for masculinity. Women do not bear fighting-spears. The spear does not go with femininity. Hence also boys do not bear [581] fighting-spears till at their initiation to manhood they are given them by their fathers. Before this event they are something in between men and women, and this is shown by the fact that they milk the cows, a feminine task that men may not undertake. That neither women nor boys bear spears means that they do not go to war and also that they do not sacrifice. It is not just that a woman may not slaughter the sacrificial victim —it is not, in any case, important who slaughters it—but that, not being able to bear the spear, she cannot make the sacrificial invocation, which is made by the spear in the right hand as well as by the mouth. She can indeed address Spirit at sacrifices, but if she does so she prays (*pal*); she does not invocate (*lam*). This is understandable when we think of the spear as an extension of the right hand and hence as representing strength, masculinity, and goodness. Sacrifice, like war, belongs to that side of life, what we ourselves call the spear-side.[1]

FIG. 4
Instrument used in wedding invocations

[1] I was told that a wife may act as master of ceremonies in her husband's place and shout out the spear-name of his clan at a wedding. This is the *twoc ghok* mentioned later.